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Educational Research Bulletin
FEBRUARY 14, 1934
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Orientation of Educational Research to Present-Day Science and Philosophy

By O. G. BRIM

I APPROACH this topic with no thought of invidious distinction between the two long-time antagonists, science and philosophy. I shall neither defend nor attack. Rather than seeking inconsistencies and defects I shall find greater satisfaction and profit from trying to discover wherein ideas or movements fit together, wherein they agree, and wherein they aid each other. I invite you to sit with me in attitude, if not in fact, around a conference table. No one will be proponent; no one, defender. The problem lies before us. Each is concerned with clear thinking and sound conclusions, as ready to add strength to another's point as to challenge it, as willing to indicate the weakness of his own argument as to defend it if the evidence seems so to point.

The title itself may raise questions, even challenge established beliefs on the part of some, for it implies that educational research is in need of orientation. It furthermore implies that scientific research, which is supposed to be coldly impersonal, consecrated to the study of facts, should take guidance from philosophy that is primarily concerned with values. It implies, furthermore, that even stable science is changing. These points are before us for consideration.

Before we can accept the new challenge to research we must reconceive both philosophy and science. Time was when philosophy conceived its task that of discovering the nature of reality which lay beyond the realm of direct experience. The Christian philosopher sought it by intuition and prayer; the lay philosopher sought it through reason, sometimes called "pure." To them this reality behind sense experience was the

world of real worth. It contained the standards of value, the criteria by which man should live, the goals man should seek. In their opinion, the world of sense experience was transient, a shadow, containing within itself nothing that could determine the nature of the good life. Hence, the philosopher looked with commiseration upon the scientist who busied himself with this world of sense experience.

The type of philosophy, however, which research workers in education meet most frequently, that of Dewey, Bode, and Kilpatrick, is basically different. These men claim the world of sense experience is the real world. From knowledge of it we build our standards of right and wrong, determine our values, and interpret the nature of the evolving and ever-changing good.[1]

According to Dewey, moralists of the past have looked upon man with "suspicion, fear, and sour countenances." They have regarded human nature as evilly disposed, and they have been imbued with a passion for ideals set up apart from any consideration of man's nature and interests. As a consequence, the moralist has been disappointed, and immorality has acquired a certain halo. Dewey concludes that moral philosophers have for ages been trying to force man into a mold of their own preferences. Philosophy exercises false leadership when it postulates a program not based upon the facts of life, and then tries by persuasion, preaching, or legislation to win converts. Above all philosophers need a respect for facts, a subordination of their *wishes for man* to the *facts about man.*

Such a transition has far-reaching consequences. In the first place, it presents us a human-centered universe. The good is that which is good for man. He is free to seek ends approved by his intelligence rather than to mold himself after, or to subordinate himself to, external standards. The good must be determined by a study of the nature of man, his resources, his interests, and by the study of his environment with its conditions and laws.

Such a procedure for determining the good would tend to overcome one of the weaknesses of those primarily concerned in setting up aims, that is, their tendency to establish aims without consideration of the means whereby these might be attained.

[1] Dewey effectively presents this contrast in the first chapter of his *Human Nature and Conduct.*

Under the procedure here proposed, aims, objectives, or values are to be formulated in terms of existing conditions and means.

As a corollary of this argument, it is evident that in this search for the criteria of the good life the philosopher needs every item of data that science can give. The physical sciences, biology, psychology, sociology, economics, political science, all contribute data relevant to the tenable goals for man, to the improvement and permanent enrichment of life.

What is perhaps more significant is that the procedure of the philosopher takes on the qualities of the scientific attitude and method if method is considered in its fundamental nature rather than as the precise techniques which have been developed to further research. The philosopher is searching for the facts of life and the relationships which hold between them. Bertrand Russell recommends a "scientific philosophy" which, while not overlooking the results of science, will rely more upon its method. "It is not results but methods that can be transferred with profit from the sphere of the special sciences to the sphere of philosophy."[2]

True, the data of the philosopher are more subtle, less objective. They include man's desires, his purposes, his sense of values; but in dealing with them the philosopher's method must be deliberate, fair, impartial, inclusive, thorough, and critical. In his search for values and guiding principles he must substitute reasoned experience for wishful thinking, intuition, prayer, or abstract theorizing.

As a result of this shift in philosophy Dewey sees science in a new rôle. It, science,

> has had as yet nothing to do with forming the social and moral ideals for which she is used. . . . If ever we are to be governed by intelligence, not by things and words, science *must* have something to say about *what* we do, and not merely *how* we may do it most easily and economically.[3]

At the time of such a transition in philosophy a new concept of the physical universe emerges. This transition is due not to the insistence of one of the friendly enemies of science, such as religion or philosophy, but of science itself. As a result "the

[2] Russell, Bertrand. *Scientific Method in Philosophy*, pp. 4–19.
[3] Dewey, John. "Science as Subject-Matter and as Method," *Science*, XXXI (January 28, 1910), p. 127.

stable foundations of physics have been broken up. The old foundations of scientific thought are becoming unintelligible." The old Newtonian concept of the nature of matter has gone with the Copernican concept of the universe. In its place are revolutionary ideas: ether as a hypothesis has been discarded, and the concepts of space and time have undergone change. The law of relativity wrecked them. Now we have a hyphenated space-time concept, whatever that may mean. The Quantum Theory has displaced the concept of a continuous flow of energy, and the Law of Inconsistency threatens, according to Eddington, to demonstrate the lawlessness of the microcosmic universe, the basic assumption of yesterday's science.

Whatever may be the outcomes of these new discoveries, the specific meanings of which physicists do not see clearly, all agree that they have set a new problem for the scientist. He must reconstruct his basic concepts; he must deal with the problems of metaphysics as well as with physics. "If," says Whitehead, "science is not to degenerate into a medley of ad hoc hypotheses, it must become philosophical and must enter upon a thorough criticism of its own foundations."[4]

In the writings of these "scientists who have become philosophical," the following conclusions seem most significant for the present problem. The universe as a body of matter ordered according to a scheme of deterministic law is no longer a principle in physics.[5] "To speak seriously," says Russell, "such orderliness as we appear to find in the external world is held by many to be due to our passion for pigeonholes, and they maintain that it is quite doubtful whether there are such things as laws of nature."[6]

The present laws of science, they claim, are conceptual. "Order, unity and continuity are human inventions just as truly as are catalogues and encyclopedias."[7] They are man's ways of ordering his universe just as we order our words in the dictionary. The present system of scientific laws is not the only one. They are not the "nature of the universe." There is nothing sacred or final about them, for laws are instruments,

[4] Whitehead, Alfred North. *Science and the Modern World*, p. 245.

[5] For more extensive discussion on this point *see* A. S. Eddington, *The Nature of the Physical World*, pp. 293–94, *and* Whitehead, *op. cit.*, pp. 277–78.

[6] Russell, Bertrand. *The Outlook of Science*, pp. 93–94, 98.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 96.

tools, that aid man in grasping and using the world about him. As an illustration of this we find the scientist sacrificing consistency to efficiency. He uses Newtonian physics in dealing with world space and Einstein's laws of relativity for interstellar space. Newton's laws seem to hold for the macrocosmic world, but in the microcosmic world the principle of indeterminacy enters. Scientific laws are in a sense man's creation and are instruments of human will and purpose.

Moreover, all laws are approximation. They never get beyond the level of hypotheses—hypotheses which have unusual reliability, it is true, but differ in degree rather than in kind from the conclusions of the theorist. As a consequence, they take on the quality of general principles or concepts that should be used as the weapons of intellectual attack as we face a new post, that should guide us in handling a novel situation rather than as a law to be followed or obediently and slavishly applied. They should facilitate thinking rather than be a substitute for it.

As a consequence of this concept of the nature of scientific law, the attitude of the scientist has changed. Russell says:

> Until quite recently men of science have felt themselves the high-priests of a noble cult, namely, the cult of truth. . . . All this is fading into the past; the modern man of science knows that he is respected, and feels that he does not deserve respect. He approaches the established order apologetically.[8]

The authority in the scientist of yesterday lay in his belief in a lawful universe, the nature of which he was revealing. As the priest who spoke with a voice of thunder because he, the viceroy of God, was announcing God's will, so the scientist merely substituted another power to which he gave allegiance and in whose name he spoke. As a result of the change "The new philosophy of physics is humble and stammering, where the old was proud and dictatorial."[9]

With the destruction of this quality of finality and absoluteness in the laws of science, the sharp difference between scientific method and philosophic method, between scientific method and reflective thinking, or between the conclusions of science and the conclusions of philosophy disappears. *They differ in degree, not in kind.* The nature of the problems, the nature of

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 99.
[9] *Ibid.*, p. 85.

the data, the pertinent details of methods vary. In science, we can gather more accurate data, we can be more objective, apply mathematical techniques, and use instruments to a greater degree; but common to them is the scientific attitude, which gives meaning both to the techniques of the exact scientist and to the logical precision of the philosopher.

While science as the pursuit of power is becoming increasingly triumphant, science as the pursuit of truth is being killed by a skepticism which the skill of the man of science has generated. But, if science is the pursuit of power, it must be power to some end. What ends? Clearly these must be determined by reference to human well-being. As long as science was a search for truth—a truth independent of human interest or purpose—the scientist might ignore the human factor. He was after the nature of reality which existed outside mankind. But science itself has proved this law-abiding reality a myth. Science is reduced to a tool of human purposes, and the scientist, while remaining impersonal in method, must humanize his ends and his problems. Science may bring increased satisfactions to more people than could otherwise have them. If so, its power is wisely used. "But when it takes out of life the moments to which life owes its value, science will not deserve admiration however cleverly and however elaborately it may lead men along the road to despair."

From all these leaders, then, comes a challenge that science be humanized, that it be made subordinate and of service to human ends. What ends? To answer this the scientist must turn philosopher, weigh human values, select ends wisely, and seek to facilitate the achievement of those most permanently satisfying and enriching, just as the philosopher must turn scientist in spirit and method if he would guide us sanely in our social planning. If one looks, then, at the emerging broader meaning of these ancient enemies, they become one, and each is enriched by their union. Here we have some of the disturbing, disrupting conclusions of scientists. What do they signify for research?

EDUCATIONAL research, which has built upon the assumptions, the laws, and the techniques of the physical sciences, should sense in this reinterpretation a challenge to a critical consideration of its own values and practices. For a challenge

exists, and reconstruction in the philosophy and program of research is sadly needed. I have read a dozen books on educational research during the past year. I have searched in vain for more than a vague awareness of the modern challenge from either the new science or the new philosophy. Monroe in his bulletin, *Ten Years of Educational Research*, comes nearest to the crucial issue, but his treatment is brief. My efforts to gather material for this paper have been trying and disappointing. I come from them empty handed, with only general suggestions.

What are the implications of this reconstruction in science? The careful selection of problems in terms of their significance for human well-being and happiness is of basic importance in research. In the main, the research worker in education has been without vision—a slave of conventional education. He has improved and polished its practices, but he has not challenged its fundamental assumptions. Reading as reading is taught better; abstract numbers are mastered more rapidly and permanently; pupils are graded more precisely; examinations are more detailed and reliable but still factual. He has dealt with minute aspects without perspective. In many respects he is like a pieceworker in a Ford factory, doing his bit in the service of some larger plan that he does not question or evaluate. If he would meet the challenge, he must become a philosopher and choose which values he will serve.

He must also give up his sense of finality and authority. The educational scientist is frequently conceited and arrogant; he lacks the intellectual humility of the true scientist. But the foundation of his conceit has been destroyed by the research of the physicist; the laws of science are conventional and convenient arrangements, never more than approximation; they are generalizations, invaluable as guides to thinking. Through adherence to the old interpretation, science, which has been the major instrument for liberating the intelligence of the race, became the agency in the hands of scientists in education for making the exercise of intelligence by lesser individuals unnecessary. It is a false conception of the function of science to determine, for instance, the most common interests of children in nature or in reading and then to prescribe a curriculum for all children, which means ten thousand unique individuals, upon that basis. Such data are invaluable tools for the teacher, but as patterns they are abortive.

In the next place, educational research has confined itself too narrowly. It has emphasized objectivity and reliability at the expense of validity and significance. It has read the precision of physics into problems and data in education which were primarily biological and sociological. It has been content to study isolated features and to draw general conclusions therefrom, although psychology reveals the individual as an organic whole. It has done this even while workers in the more exact sciences have been advocating its wider import. They see the scientific method as a basic principle of procedure that has varied forms in different situations rather than as a set of exact techniques without which a procedure is not scientific. Millikan speaks of the "scientific attitude toward life," Barry of an "attitude of mind," Curtis of the "method of fair judgment and the open mind." This larger import of science is so well expressed in the following quotation.

> Their ideals and their methods apply to whatever field you may enter. . . . If, in the problems that confront you, like Pasteur, you will be patient in collecting facts; and, like the great industrial leaders, will direct your imagination into worthwhile channels; if, like Kepler, you will test and retest cherished beliefs till accuracy results; and, like Newton, will hold judgment in suspense till your conclusions agree with your facts; and if, through the courage of your conviction you can learn to profit by adverse criticism, then can you claim possession of the scientific method. If, now, you will carry this procedure into your daily lives, and let it become the symbol of love for truth, of service to humanity, and of devotion to duty, then will you also possess the scientific spirit.[10]

This emphasis upon techniques has kept the educational scientist from seeing the *deeper significance and contribution of science to man.* When I look back upon the contribution my teachers of the science of education have made to me, I feel that the mountain labored and brought forth a mouse. And I do not feel this was my fault for its larger meaning was never presented. Science has liberated man from fears and superstition. It has given him a method of intellectual procedure in which he has confidence. With courage he faces the unknown, believing that he can grasp its nature and maneuver it to his purpose. It has given him power and the belief that by taking thought he can realize a heaven here on earth. For cringing fear it has substituted conquering courage. Through science

[10] Fish, J. P. "Science as a Way of Life," *Bulletin of High Points,* XI (May, 1929), pp. 33–34.

modern man looks upon a threatening disaster as a challenge to intelligence rather than as a call to prayer. This outlook, this philosophy of life, is held by many to be the very essence of the contribution of science. Robinson states his position in the following quotation:

> The chief end of education seems to me to be the encouragement of the scientific attitude of mind and a full and vivid appreciation of the inherent obstacles that oppose themselves to its successful culmination in the human species.[11]

Dewey supports him by saying:

> One of the only two articles that remain in my creed of life is that the future of our civilization depends upon the widening spread and deepening hold of the scientific habit of mind; and that the problem of problems in our education is therefore to discover how to mature and make effective this scientific habit.[12]

Educational research has done but little to foster in the coming generation this scientific attitude of mind.

Pragmatic philosophy has unseated the gods and denied the existence of external values. Science has substituted a search for power for a search for truth. Both movements magnify human values as guiding criteria. The philosophic thinkers have given us democracy as a way of life, a social order that idealizes sharing of all peoples in the responsibilities and resources of our common life. Science has given us the scientific attitude and method, a liberated and disciplined intellect, as an ideal. The fusion of these two into a guiding ideal for a dynamic race is evolving. At base they seem the same, for democracy implies "fair dealings with all peoples concerned," while the scientific attitude means "fair dealings with all pertinent facts."

It was previously stated that the research worker must select his problems by their human significance. He must have a standard of values. From modern philosophy and science come these suggestions. Educational research should be engaged primarily with problems that concern the realization of a more dynamic organism, a democratic way of life, and a liberated but disciplined intelligence.

Suppose we examine the conventional school in whose

[11] Robinson, James Harvey. *The Humanizing of Knowledge*, p. 64.
[12] *Loc. cit.*

service the educational scientist has willingly and industriously enlisted. What does it seek as its goal? Is it organized to instill interests and drives? Does it increase dynamic? Is it organized to make thinkers? Does it foster the inquiring mind? Does it practice its pupils in the methods of child research? The answer is almost a complete negative.

Had educational scientists been aware of science as a way of life rather than as a technique for getting more accurate answers to old questions, they would have led the van in demanding the reconstruction of the conventional school. Looking at the conventional educational program even improved as modern research has improved it, I find it woefully inadequate when measured by the criteria implicit in science itself. It stands a challenge to your constructive leadership.

The progressive school, on the other hand, presents a different type of problem. Basically it is organized to free and foster the inquiring mind. Child research is the essence of its method. Its life is intimately socialized. In atmosphere, organization, procedure, and values it is far more in keeping with the type of school I see implicit in the modern movement than is the conventional school. But it has not established its values and goals by that critical type of thinking which characterizes the philosophy and proceeds in the method of science. What is true of its goals, if any, is true of its content, its procedure, its organization, and its outcomes.

The enthusiastic advocates of this school have been too often proponents and too seldom scientists whose central teaching has been to test the conclusion. Faith played a disproportionate rôle. Hypotheses were uncritically formed, the wished-for conclusions were uncritically assumed. But you cannot blame them much. All those of scientific temper and training were defenders of the conventional school, critics of the new, and insistent that its program and product be measured by standards and techniques at variance with its purposes, problems, and data. Furthermore, the progressive school has been shortsighted in its socialization. It has been content to build an ideal democratic classroom and school spirit while neglecting the larger social issues and problems about which the young should be informed, in which they should be prepared to participate, and from which the larger guidance must come.

[*Continued on page 54*]

Charity and Compulsory School Attendance

By D. H. SUTTON

THE Ohio General Assembly has attempted by legislation to eliminate all conditions that would tend to deny a child of school age the privilege of school attendance. Principal among the laws have been the provisions for relief to those pupils between six and eighteen years of age who may be unable to attend school, because they are dependent upon their own labor for their support. By the same statute, a child may be in need of relief if he is the sole support of other persons (parents or guardians) legally entitled to his services.

In normal times such situations occurred with considerable regularity, but recent unstable economic and industrial conditions have increased the frequency of occurrence as well as the number of persons to whom these conditions would apply. These problems, once small, have become increasingly important during the last four years. It is neither wise nor helpful for local school officers and welfare officials to minimize existing difficulties. Local officers throughout Ohio aided by state subsidies have made supreme efforts to maintain educational opportunities for all children. Generally speaking, no group of public officials and none of the local governmental subdivisions have shirked their duties, but the enlarged demand for such services has become burdensome. As a result of these conditions many pupils in the separate school districts of the state are not in attendance at school.

One of the most significant signs of the present attendance situation is the magnificent response which state and local welfare and school officials have made to solve these perplexing problems. Many difficulties arise in performing the duties attendant upon the enforcement of such attendance and the extension of relief to those pupils of school age who are in distress. In many instances, it is unfortunate that school officials are governed specifically by a statute which is insufficiently broad in scope to meet the situations which arise. Charity and welfare officials are unable to co-operate with school officers in extending aid, because they have insufficient funds to meet the needs for food, clothing, and shelter of their indigent residents.

Moreover, another difficulty arises from the very phraseology of the statute governing the power of a board of education to grant relief to children of compulsory school age.

THE historical background of the present statutory regulations governing the relief which may be extended by boards of education to needy pupils gives some insight into the problem. Provisions similar to those now contained in the school laws were first enacted in 1889 as a part of the compulsory school law.[1] This law was amended by enactments in 1893, 1902, 1908, and 1921. The amendments of 1921 embody the law now in force, which states that

> when an attendance officer is satisfied that a child compelled to attend school is otherwise unable to do so because absolutely required to work at home or elsewhere in order to support himself or help to support or care for others legally entitled to his services who are unable to support or care for themselves, such officer must report the case to the president of the board of education of the city, exempted village, village or rural school district in which such child resides. Upon proof of such fact the given board of education shall furnish free of charge textbooks and such other personal necessities for the child or persons entitled to his services and also such medical care in co-operation with the health commissioner of the district as may be necessary to enable the child to attend school. The expense incident to furnishing such relief must be paid from the contingent fund of the school district. Such child shall not be considered a pauper by reason of the acceptance of such relief. If the child or its parent or guardian refuses or neglects to take advantage of the provision thus made for its instruction, action may be taken against the parent or guardian or child as provided in Sections 7773, 7774 or 1645, *General Code*.[2]

The obvious purpose of the statute is to substitute the board of education for the authorities in charge of administering the relief laws, and school funds for relief funds. This purpose, however, does not embrace the extension of school funds as relief to an entire family simply because the family is in need of charity and has certain members who are of compulsory school age. The intention of the law is to provide the means whereby the compulsory school law may be rendered effective as it regards children within the compulsory school ages, but in

[1] 86 O.L. 337, Sec. 10.
[2] *General Code of Ohio*. Sec. 7777.

this respect the statute has failed. The only children to whom the statute applies are those old enough to engage in a gainful occupation who are in such straitened circumstances that they are compelled to support themselves or those legally dependent upon them. When the child comes within these requirements, he is entitled to receive relief. The extent of such relief when granted may not exceed that necessary to relieve the child from work, provide necessary books, offer personal necessities, and furnish medical care to enable him to attend school.

The statute has no application whatever to other children in the needy family who are not old enough to work, or who are physically incapable of being employed. If a strict construction of the law is followed, it would not effect better attendance at school except for those children who are eligible to be excused on age and schooling certificates. The age of a child bears no relationship to his need for relief; it seems quite possible that a child ten years old could be just as hungry, suffer equally as much from lack of adequate clothing, require as much medical service, and need textbooks as much as a youth of sixteen.

A STATUTE so limited in its application[3] should either be amended so that it may apply to all needy children of school age or be so changed that provision for relief becomes a mandatory duty of public-welfare officials. Emergency crises, such as local school districts are now enduring, bring about increased needs which cannot be met. Even in normal times, some parents may find it impossible to care for their minor children of compulsory school age, who are too young to be employed in some gainful occupation. Hitherto, it has been easier for children to engage in gainful employment, but poor business conditions, increases in unemployment, the prohibition of child labor, and the adoption of labor codes regulating employment under the authority of the National Recovery Act have all contributed to the need for more relief to permit all children of compulsory school age to enjoy educational privileges. The elimination of child labor and the adoption of the National Recovery Act are certainly commendable steps in the return of the country to more prosperous times, but they do not furnish a solution to the immediate question, How shall school officials meet the present exigency?

[3] Sec. 7777.

The present administration of relief affords an excellent opportunity for effective and purposeful action. Co-operation between county relief commissions, or other persons designated to perform such functions, and school officials within the governmental unit can provide children in need with food, clothing, shelter, medical care, and such other necessities as will permit them to enjoy the benefits of an education. The State Relief Commission in Ohio, as a part of the relief program, has exerted untold efforts to make it possible for all children of school age to attend school, but a vast portion of the funds which are expended for the relief of those in need are secured from the Federal Government. The administration of relief within the state is subject to the rules and regulations adopted and enforced by the Federal Relief Administration. As a result of Federal aid in extending both work and direct relief to the unemployed, each state or local relief agency must be governed by the rules promulgated as a prerequisite to participation in Federal subsidies.

CERTAIN difficulties have arisen and misconceptions have found lodgment in the minds of those persons confronted by the problem of obtaining sufficient relief whereby children of school age may attend school. For this reason, it seems advisable to give a general summary of the Federal regulations governing relief and the possible avenues through which local officials may obtain aid for school children who are in need.

The regulations adopted by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration governing the management of relief in those states participating in Federal funds were issued under date of June 23, 1933.[4] These regulations established certain requirements which each participating state was forced to adopt under penalty of forfeiting its subsidy. Those provisions applying specifically to children of school age may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. All grants of Federal emergency relief funds are to be administered only by public agencies after August 1, 1933.
2. Grants made to the states from Federal funds under the Emergency

[4] *Rules and Regulations Governing Expenditures of Federal Emergency Relief Funds.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933. (Federal Emergency Relief Administration Bulletin, No. 1)

Relief Act of 1933 may be used for the payment of medical attendance and medical supplies for those families that are receiving relief. These funds may also be used to pay the cost of shelter for the needy unemployed.

3. Federal funds may not be used for the payment of hospital bills or for the board and room of children either in public institutions or in private homes.

Under the Federal regulations all relief must be adequate. All persons whose employment or available resources are inadequate to provide the necessities for themselves or their dependents are included in the meaning of the Federal Emergency Relief Act. The specific types of relief which may be allowed to those in need include food; the provision of shelter or its equivalent; allowances for warmth and water; necessary household supplies; allowance for clothing sufficient for emergency needs; and medicine, medical supplies, and medical attendance.

It is perhaps unnecessary to observe that all aid granted to those in need must be given by the public relief agency. Moreover, the grants are made only to the family in the home. It is impossible for the local relief administration to allocate either state or Federal funds to another public group to care for those in need when the group receiving the grant is not amenable to the State Relief Commission for the expenditure of the money received. As it applies to school children, the entire relief program administered under the rules prescribed by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration is one of "direct relief." Few, if any, of the cases could possibly be included under what is termed "work relief."

Charity in its relationship to compulsory school attendance appears to pursue two courses, each having its beginning at a common point; namely, the provision of those necessities which will permit needy children to attend school. On this basis, the problems faced by local school and welfare officials divide themselves into two distinct groups, those in need of "poor relief" and those requiring "emergency relief." Generally speaking, that aid known as poor relief embraces all those cases which exist in normal times and have been cared for hitherto through local resources. "Emergency relief," as the name implies, includes that type of aid extended to those cases which have arisen as a result of the present unemployment situation. To

school and welfare officials, then, relief for children of school age is no longer a problem of providing for those pupils whose parents are unable to care for them in normal times. It is a community problem. As such it becomes a co-operative venture which requires the combined efforts of all public bodies interested in social betterment and the welfare of the community.

"Direct relief" in its fundamental sense is charity; "emergency relief" belongs in another category. The former type exists even during the most fortuitous times. The latter tends to become eliminated by re-employment and improved economic conditions. As "emergency relief" now exists, it represents an obligation which a community owes to its less fortunate members. Regardless of what the future holds, the state has realized its responsibility and is making every effort to redeem the obligation; the duty of the local areas is a debt which they alone can discharge. To do this most effectively every co-operative effort must be made by local school and welfare officials. The hungry child must be fed and clothed. Concurrent with physical welfare, educational opportunities must not be denied to those children who have become objects of charity. The statutes require their attendance at school unless legally excused, and this legal obligation for the attendance of children at school rests upon the parents or guardian of the child. If the responsible persons are unable to meet the statutory requirements, local boards of education should bring this fact to the attention of their relief officials. [Vol. XIII, No. 2]

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Among the individuals who will act as chairmen of the meetings of the Citizens' Conference on the Crisis in Education are Governor George White; Federal Judge Walter C. Lindley, of Illinois; Commissioner George F. Zook, of the United States Office of Education; and Frank P. Graves, Commissioner of Education of New York State. We also hope to have two or three other prominent speakers whose names we are not yet prepared to announce, but who will be at least as well known as those who have already accepted. A more complete description of the Conference will be found on the last two pages of this issue of the EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Movies

THOUGHTFUL parents view the influence of current movies upon their children with apprehension and alarm. This fear is well founded, for the Payne Fund studies have shown that even young children remember more than they miss in the pictures. High-school boys and girls have their attitudes toward important values changed to a measurable degree by a single exposure to some pictures, and this influence is both cumulative and permanent. Manners, clothes, and play are modified by the characters who move upon the silver screen. The movies are a very powerful influence for good or bad. They are potent in raising the standards of a nation or in debasing them.

The apprehension of parents is born of the belief that the commercial movies are made by adults for adults without regard for effect upon the social customs of a nation or for the influence upon the immature who, on the average, see a movie once a week. On such visits the children are exposed to pictures of sex, crime, and love in about equal numbers three out of the four weeks in a month. And this is an unbalanced diet for the children. A social instrument has been developed by human genius which needs to be controlled in the public interest.

One method of control has been devised and placed in practical operation in many states. Censorship has been established by law, but that device is a rough screen capable of eliminating only the grossest infractions of mores, and incapable of influencing picture-making until after the product is ready for the market. Useful to a degree, it cannot completely solve the problem.

Other methods of control are advocated, however, and of these one is peculiarly powerful over the long range. If the public exhibited discrimination such that it would ignore poor pictures and patronize good pictures the producers would be quick to respond to the best of their ability. Up to date the public has not shown great discrimination and for a cogent reason: It knows little about how pictures are made and what makes pictures good or poor.

At this point the schools can render a signal service through appreciation courses. They have for the last twenty years demonstrated their ability to raise appreciably the artistic discrimination of a nation. They have aided materially in the development of a more intelligent appreciation of literature and music. They are, therefore, favorably situated to add to their repertoire the photoplay—probably the most powerful of all the arts and certainly the most spectacularly interesting to children. Through an understanding of the nature of the photoplay children will learn discrimination, and the children of today are the adults of tomorrow.

This obligation has been sensed by many schools. Teachers of English in whose field motion-picture appreciation naturally lies, are beginning to insert ten lesson-units in their English courses to the great benefit and interest of senior high-school students. The National Council of Teachers of English is actively supporting the idea. Organizations such as the International Council on Religious Education, the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., the Jewish Welfare Board, the National Catholic Welfare Conference, in their own educational groups for adolescents are all addressing themselves to the problem. It would appear that the appreciation of motion pictures is on the way promptly to be included in high-school curriculums. And if agencies such as these deliberately underwrite the project, it is only a matter of a decade or so until the public will intelligently discriminate between good and poor pictures, which discrimination will have a direct effect upon the box-office receipts of exhibitors—than which there is no more powerful influence known to producers. Such a public will also evolve techniques of control that seem to be beyond the ability of the present generation of adults to whom commercial pictures are a mystery, and seem to be a menace. W. W. C.

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The Ohio State Educational Conference proper will be held between the Citizens' Conference which ends Friday night, April 6, and the discussion groups which begin Saturday morning at 10:30. They will meet from 8:30 until 10:15 Saturday morning, and the keynote will be the same as at the Citizens' Conference: "Education—A Crisis in American Democracy."

READINGS

WILLIAMS, JESSE FEIRING, AND BROWNELL, CLIFFORD L. "Organization for Health Instruction in Public Schools," *Teachers College Record*, XXXV (January, 1934), pp. 269–79.

Altogether too much of present-day health instruction in the schools throughout the nation is irrelevant in purpose and incidental in character. Consequently, the contents of this article will hearten and encourage those who believe that effective health teaching requires, among other things, a definite, well-organized program, and an adequate preparation on the part of the teacher.

Other essential requisites stressed are the necessity for a thorough understanding of the meaning of health and its broad, social implications; the skillful use of the direct method in health instruction; the intelligent use of a critically evaluated and progressively arranged body of health material, including appropriate textbooks and other types of both printed and visual aids; and the whole-hearted co-operation of pupils, teachers, and parents.

CHAMBERS, M. M. "A Glimpse into the Future of School Administration," *Nation's Schools*, XIII (January, 1934), pp. 13–14.

The author of this interesting and nontechnical article attempts to look into the future and forecast some of the desirable changes that should take place in the field of school administration as a result of present forces and combinations of trends. Some of the practical and probable steps, both state and national, that should be realized during the next decade are set forth in a clear and vivid manner. This bit of forecasting is invigorating, timely, and wholesome, and visions the functions of school administration on a high and well-deserved professional basis unmistakably above the level of mere institutional management.

ZYVE, CLAIRE, AND MERRIL, MARIE. "Analysis of Trends in an Informal Unit Teaching Program," *Teachers College Record*, XXXV (January, 1934), pp. 293–309.

This article gives an interesting description and appraisal of an exceptional type of co-operative research in elementary education carried out in the public schools of the state of New York under the auspices of the Informal Teaching Committee of the New York Principals' Association. Approximately three hundred teachers and two hundred principals assisted in the undertaking by turning their schoolrooms into "informal classrooms" and experimenting with the possibilities of the unit method of instruction with kindergarten and elementary children.

The trends revealed by an analysis of the results obtained from detailed reports on 1,240 units of work are pointed out. The implications of these trends reveal significant possibilities both for the "informal classroom" and for the unit method of teaching in that they increase children's opportunities for social experience, aid them in the interpretation of the social and economic aspects of community life, promote integration of subject-matter, encourage

the use of reference materials, and stimulate the growth of teachers through a critical self-analysis and appraisal of their work.

MORT, PAUL R. "National Government Must Take Part in Financing Education," *Nation's Schools*, XIII (January, 1934), pp. 20–22.

To anyone who will take the pains to examine intelligently the financial health of the American public-school system, or, what is more tangible, the findings of the National Survey of School Finance, the conclusion that the Federal Government must take a hand in the financing of public education throughout the nation is inevitable.

In his analysis of the situation in thirty-two states, the author presents a number of charts showing the costs of the minimum educational program provided in these states during the school year 1930-31. These expenditures vary from $12 per elementary pupil in the poorest districts of Arkansas to $78 per pupil in the poorest districts in the state of New York. The data further reveal that the abler states "in districts of average wealth in terms of dollars of equal purchasing power" can provide a school program four times as extensive as that of the poorer states. In the light of these glaring inequalities Mr. Mort holds that the time for academic discussion of Federal support is past, and concludes that the so-called evil of national control is merely a bugaboo and can be avoided.

BRUNER, HERBERT B. "Some of Education's Opportunities and Obligations in the Present Crisis," *Teachers College Record*, XXXV (January, 1934), pp. 310–22.

Although the past few years have witnessed both widespread and noticeable improvement in curriculum construction, courses of study are still decidedly inadequate to meet the exacting needs of the times. Before these fundamental shortcomings can be remedied, teachers and curriculum-makers must become intelligently informed concerning the gravity of the present world crisis, and seriously attempt to understand the real meanings of the crucial social and economic problems which so vitally affect the lives of all human beings. Such an understanding will demand of teachers and curriculum-makers a breadth of training, reading, travel, and experience never before thought necessary or possible, and will require a concerted attack on a wide front by all those engaged in the work, whether in a teacher-training institution, or in a public or private school.

PITKIN, ROYCE S. "Where Shall We Go from Here?" *School Executives Magazine*, LIII (January, 1934), pp. 134–35, 154.

The plan of organization for curriculum development in the schools of Tulsa, Oklahoma is that of a number of curriculum committees whose members spend approximately a year in making an intensive study of the specific problems of their committees before undertaking the actual work on the curriculum. Following the theory that the curriculum is the central problem in education, all of the forces of the school are brought to bear upon the problem.

The advantages of the Tulsa plan are that the curriculum has been built from within, that it has stimulated and enriched the entire staff, that a planned

program is followed, that the work of classroom teaching is not impaired by curriculum work, that professional advancement is encouraged, that library facilities are expanded and used, and that the cost of curriculum reconstruction in Tulsa is quite reasonable.

ENGELHARDT, N. L. "The Effectiveness of Sound Pictures in Education," *School Executives Magazine*, LIII (January, 1934), pp. 136–38.

Three careful studies of the comparative results of instruction by use of sound films and by methods not including the use of such films showed that in the fields of science and music more effective teaching and more lasting retention resulted from use of the sound films than from the other type of instruction. The three studies are carefully reviewed by the author who points out certain implications as to school-building construction which the results of these studies bring out.

In Paper Covers

CAMPBELL, DOAK S. *Principals of the Accredited High Schools of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.* Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College, 1932. iii + 56 pp.

Questionnaire returns from 918 principals of high schools accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (a 77-per cent return) indicate these facts about the average high-school principal in schools in this association. He is about forty years of age; has been 5.6 years in his present position; he has had 17 years' experience; draws a salary of approximately $2,553 a year. He has a Bachelor's degree, 19 semester-hours of undergraduate work in education, and one half-year's work on his Master's degree, done primarily in summers, and in the field of education; it has been 4.5 years since his last attendance at school; and he has one administrative assistant.

The average time spent per week in various duties in hours were: administrative, 14.2; supervisory, 9.3; teaching, 7.7; extra-curricular, 4; community service, 3.4; total, 38.6. This is much lower than the average amount of time reported spent in school duties by teachers in other sections of the country.

Thirty-one tables report the data by states and, for the most part, separate those from private and public schools. Based on the findings in this report, the author suggests setting up the requirement of a Master's degree, including specified courses in education for all new high-school principals in schools in this association.

EARL W. ANDERSON

HUNTER, M. H. *The Expenditure of State Funds in Illinois.* Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1932. 40 pp. (University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XXX, No. 7)

In this report are analyzed the expenditures of the state of Illinois for the period 1921 to 1930–31. In 1921, 61.5 per cent of the total state expenditures went to current expenses. In 1930, this amount decreased to 47.7 per cent. During the period included in the study, total state expenditures doubled, while population and social income increased 16 and 25 per

cent, respectively. The proportion of total expenditures for education decreased from 19.2 per cent in 1921 to 12.8 per cent in 1930, while expenditures for highways and waterways increased from 33.3 per cent to 37.1 per cent. In other words, for the entire period expenditures for highways and waterways absorbed more than one-third of the total expenditures of the state.

It is interesting to note that expenditures for education and public welfare, the latter of which includes asylums, penal and correctional institutions, were approximately the same in 1931, expenditures for the former being slightly more than $22,000,000 and for the latter approximately $23,500,000. During the period the proportion of expenditures going to bond and interest payments increased from 4 per cent in 1921 to 12.8 per cent in 1930. Considering the complicated nature of the financial statistics of a state, the report presents the facts in a clear-cut manner.

T. C. Holy

Johnson, B. Lamar. *The Secondary-School Library*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933. 110 pp. (United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17)

This study, a part of the national survey of secondary education, does not, as one might expect, attempt to report conditions as represented by all schools. It is based, rather, on a survey, by questionnaire and personal visitation, of schools outstanding for their library service. This plan has the advantage of producing a volume rich in suggestions for the guidance of school librarians and administrators, suggestions which have stood the test of use and proved their value.

It deals with library facilities, library staffs, and the relations between the library and other departments. Regulations governing library usage are discussed in detail with the advantages and disadvantages of various procedures presented.

Ruth Seeger

Swift, Fletcher Harper, and Studebaker, John W. *What Is This Opportunity School?* New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1932. 87 pp.

The opportunity school at Denver is a tax-supported institution, part of the public-school system; it receives 87.8 per cent of its support from local taxation; it provides day and night classes; and it is open the entire school year. In 1930–31 the school enrolled 9,768 students; of these, 3,433 were in commercial courses; 3,685, in trade courses; 916, in academic subjects; and 1,734, in cooking, sewing, and other courses.

The school provides training for men and women who want a trade; for workers who want additional training; for persons who have lacked opportunity in youth and now want academic school training; for boys and girls who find it difficult to become adjusted to the regular public-school program; and for foreign people who wish to learn English and become American citizens.

The school has the enthusiastic support of Denver employers, organized labor, Denver's social agencies, its citizens, and the thousands of students who have been re-educated, readjusted socially, and rehabilitated economically.

A. O. Heck

WATSON, GLADYS HIPPLE. *Success and Failure in the Teaching Profession.* New York: Columbia University, 1932. 99 pp.

Fifty-eight graduate students attending Teachers College, Columbia University were studied for qualities which might bear relationship to predicted professional success or failure. Of these, 39 were chosen because of promise of outstanding professional success as rated by professors; 19 because they were judged likely to fail.

Measures used in studying the 58 students were: the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, the Stanford Educational Aptitudes Test, the Thurstone Personality Schedule, the Harper Social Attitudes Test, a general information test, a lengthened form of the Morris Trait Index L, the Chassell record blank, and the scores on the General Examination given at Teachers College. Personal interviews were held with a few of these students. Each one kept a diary covering half-hour intervals for one week.

From the data the author listed twenty ways in which the superior people tended to differ from the predicted failures. The author felt that the less able group showed tendencies of failure to attain a reasonably objective, adult attitude toward their parents. They also tended to be more conservative in religious, economic, political, and patriotic matters. However, only tendencies toward differences were noted.

The thesis represents an interesting approach to the problem of differences between successful and unsuccessful students in a teacher-training institution. It would have been more valuable had the graduate students been selected upon records of previous teaching or administrative success, rather than upon professors' predictions.

EARL W. ANDERSON

Books to Read

MATHIAS, MARGARET E. *The Teaching of Art.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. xii + 356 pp.

Readers of Margaret Mathias' books, *The Beginnings of Art in the Public Schools* and *Art in the Elementary School* will welcome this new one. A capable, widely experienced observer and teacher of children, Author Mathias has clearly and cleverly given us a volume filled with stimulating and practical ideas.

The application of the fundamental art principles of line, form, value, color, and arrangement should only be given, this author feels, when the child shows a strong need for them; this need to be determined by constant and close observation of the child's activities, interests, and skills, not only in the art classroom, but in his other studies and outside interests. Only thus can a teacher determine the needs of his students in materials and technique, as well as a comprehensive knowledge of his aesthetic standards. By permitting and encouraging him to give expression to his feelings, rather than hampering him with fundamentals for which he has no conscious need, the teacher promotes growth of expression of a wide variety of experiences. An attempt to perfect the type of expression is apt to endanger the child's confidence in his ability. The author feels that the teacher can help raise standards as the child recognizes his needs.

There should be well-conducted discussion of the finished work, children giving free expression, both written and oral, of what has been learned, wherein the work is of value, where there have been errors. From these discussions both teacher and student can recognize the needs and advancement of the children.

Several pages are devoted to a practical method of obtaining satisfactory lettering. In cut-out letters Miss Mathias suggests and well illustrates a cardboard device to be used as a unit of measure to make uniform stems and good letter forms. The section devoted to drawing is one of the meatiest portions of the book. Here the laws which assist the artist have been described and illustrated clearly and simply. The book closes with several pages devoted to related manual activities and a bit of art appreciation.

Throughout this valuable book, I was impressed with its simplicity and fine selection of essentials as related to the teaching of art.

C. Warren Moore

Prenner, Manuel; Progoff, Bernard M.; and Sternberg, William N. *Concurrence and Dissent; Some Recent Supreme Court Cases.* Chicago: Charles Merrill Company, 1933. xi + 243 pp.

This book aims to provide source material for high-school Seniors in their study of literature, debating, or social science. It is essentially made up of seven opinions of the United States Supreme Court, all since 1915, and all but one rendered by a divided court. This one, incidentally, having to do with the constitutionality of an Ohio statute creating a board of censors for motion pictures, is the only poor selection. Neither the opinion nor the issue is so significant as to justify inclusion. The remaining six are admirably chosen.

The tone of the volume is definitely liberal and stimulatingly critical. The cases illustrate progressive legislative experiments, whether furthered or thwarted by the court. Each is prefaced by a clear nontechnical statement of facts and thought-provoking questions. These latter appear still more searchingly after each opinion, effectively challenging the student's grasp of his material. The book is well calculated to stimulate an intelligent questioning of premises and argumentation, and to induce a wholesome and critical attitude toward pronouncements emanating from high places.

Robert E. Mathews

"A Century of Progress Series," Baltimore, Maryland: Williams and Wilkins Company, 1932 and following.

The Williams and Wilkins Company, of Baltimore, and its associates, in co-operation with the Century of Progress Exposition, began in 1932 the issuance of the small books belonging to the "Century of Progress Series"—"a series of volumes by well-known scholars presenting the essential features of those fundamental sciences which are the foundation stones of modern industry." The series comprises more than twenty volumes, each of which deals with a distinct science in its relation to the modern world. The fields of agricultural engineering, anthropology, bacteriology, chemistry, genetics, geology, medicine, mining, and psychology are indicative of the range of sciences included. The writer has examined thirteen volumes of the series, of which five, chosen at random, are titled as follows: *The Queen of the Sciences* by

E. T. Bell, *The New Necessity* by C. F. Kettering and Allen Orth, *Animal Life and Social Growth* by W. C. Allen, *Man and Microbes* by S. Bayne-Jones, and *The Universe Unfolding* by R. H. Baker. Each volume contains a complete list of all of the titles in the entire series.

The content and treatment of each volume is peculiar to its author. In other words, there seems to have been no restriction of any kind under which an author was forced to work. Best of all, no attempt at continuity as between volumes is evident. A reader may pick up any volume in the series and find therein a complete story. Some of the authors write in semipopular style, others with a more scholastic tone; apparently, all aim in the direction of nontechnical narration. Accuracy of statement seems not to have been sacrificed in this attempt. The volumes examined have all been interesting, some exceedingly so. In the opinion of the reviewer the series is worth anyone's attention.

As to appearance, these volumes are a credit to the publisher. Each volume is bound in a color different from the others, and carries a striking title plate. The number of pages per volume is from 125 to 155, approximately.

It seems to the reviewer that the series serves well its intended purpose—that of being a written record of scientific progress during the last century.

GLENN S. THOMPSON

MARSHALL, EDNA M. *Evaluation of Types of Student Teaching.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. vii + 91 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 488)

This volume is the report of an experimental study of various types of student teaching made at the Maryland State Normal School. The students in Group A taught for approximately one academic year on campus and in affiliated schools. During two twelve-week periods the students taught one hour per day, and during the third twelve weeks three hours per day were spent in the schools. This course was paralleled by work in educational methods. The students in Group B taught 30 six-hour days in affiliated schools. Educational courses preceded this teaching, instead of paralleling it. The students in Group C made a large number of observations in connection with the educational courses, but taught only for a period of six weeks (three hours daily) in city and rural schools.

The results of the experiment were determined by the use of standardized tests and normal-school supervisors' estimates of teaching success. These results indicated clearly that student teaching distributed over a long period of time and consisting of a large amount of actual teaching contacts yielded greater efficiency than student teaching concentrated in a brief period, or an equal number of periods devoted largely to observation and demonstration.

H. B. ALBERTY

GIST, ARTHUR S. *Clarifying the Teacher's Problems.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. xiv + 312 pp.

For some time there has been a need for a book on the teacher's problems in the light of progressive tendencies in education. Mr. Gist has produced such a book, which is written primarily for the beginning teacher. In reading the book the reviewer has a feeling that certain sections could be

well expanded. This is especially true of the chapter on recitations. It may be, however, that the brief treatment best serves the purposes of the author; namely, the guidance and stimulation of teachers in line with the new tendencies in elementary education.

R. H. ELIASSEN

PERCY, LORD EUSTACE, M. P., Editor-in-Chief. *The Year Book of Education, 1933*. London: Evans Brothers, Ltd. 860 pp.

It is possible to give a hint only of the contents of this large and comprehensive volume. The first volume (1932) of this series of yearbooks summarized the facts of the educational organization in Great Britain, in the dominions, and in ten or more other countries. This second volume (1933) of the series presents statistics and facts for the year of publication, together with a substantial body of interpretation by a large staff of collaborators drawn from the several countries included in the report. Many phases of education are covered, finance, law and policy, school architecture, curriculums, and methods. The series as it progresses will constitute a comprehensive annual review of educational achievement, more particularly in the British nations, but in others also.

H. G. GOOD

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Orientation of Educational Research to Present-Day Science and Philosophy

[*Continued from page 38*]

With wider social perspective and a more critical intelligence among its leaders the progressive school promises much. If I were to choose which school can the more readily be made to square with the criteria involved in modern philosophy and science, and which is the more likely to achieve this quality of training, I would select the progressive school, for its values and general framework are sound. Even now its leaders are in process of strengthening the weaknesses mentioned. They need the sort of help that people trained in research ought to be able to give.

In conclusion, as a result of the modern trend in philosophy and science, we need a redefinition of the function of science in education and of the purpose, nature, and scope of educational research. This chapter in educational progress is yet to be written. The literature is practically barren. The field, however, seems almost overripe. It offers a challenge to leaders in educational research.

Ohio State Educational Conference

THIS year, because of the financial emergency in education throughout the country, we are organizing two series of meetings at the time of the Ohio State Educational Conference: first, a national conference for citizens, and, second, a somewhat different conference than heretofore for school people.

The first of these two series of meetings is to be called the Citizens' Conference on the Crisis in Education. It goes into session Thursday evening, April 5, with the keynote "Education—A Crisis in American Democracy." Four large meetings will be held: one each on Thursday evening, Friday morning, Friday afternoon, and Friday evening. Among the people who have already accepted our invitations to speak are Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt; Newton D. Baker; President Glenn Frank, of the University of Wisconsin; President Robert M. Hutchins, of the University of Chicago; Governor Paul McNutt, of Indiana; and Superintendent William J. Bogan, of the Chicago Public Schools.

You will be enthusiastic to hear about the responses that we have received as we have organized these citizens' meetings. Dean Arps has talked personally to everyone of the speakers who has accepted, and each one of them has quickly seen the tremendous importance of the conference and has expressed his vigorous desire to help. The school children of the country have been made to sacrifice their educational opportunities in a fashion that threatens the democratic structure of our American society. Up until now only educators have protested, but now we are bringing together a group of nationally prominent citizens to tell the entire country about the seriousness of the situation.

The press has also joined its forces to the success of the enterprise. The United Press and other national press associations have not only agreed to give us considerable advance publicity all over the United States, but they are also sending special representatives to cover the meetings for their large chains of newspapers. Furthermore, the National Broadcasting Company will broadcast several of the addresses over a national radio hook-up.

On Saturday morning, April 7, the speeches of these four general meetings will be followed up with a series of eight or nine discussion groups, each of which will be led by a nationally known educator—to be announced soon. These discussion leaders will seek to interpret the addresses made at the Citizens' Conference into programs of action. The function of the speakers at the general sessions will be to arouse public opinion to the importance of the crisis in education. The function of the discussion leaders will be to inform the public about programs that need to be followed. The discussion groups we plan are the following: the Elementary Curriculum, the High-School Curriculum, the Administration of Large City School Systems, the Administration of Small City School Systems, the Administration of County School Systems, Crime and Delinquency, Education for Leisure Time, the Training of Teachers, Legislation and Finance.

We are most anxious to have every one of our regular thirty-nine sections hold a meeting—and for two reasons: we want to keep the continuity of our sectional meetings and the general organization of our regular conference intact, and we want to have your sectional speaker or speakers talk on the keynote as specifically applied to your subject-matter. Thus, instead of arranging ordinary meetings, we propose that each chairman arrange for one or two speakers, prominent educators from Ohio or elsewhere who will come without expense, to speak about the conditions in your field and propose steps for meeting the financial crisis. These speakers should be either people who already have the facts about the retrenchments and their effects in your field, or people who can, during the next two months, collect and interpret these facts. We do not want generalized or sentimentalized speeches. We want the facts well organized and carefully analyzed. We have in the sectional meetings an opportunity to gather an overwhelming collection of data about the present condition of the schools and to bring these data to the attention of the public. Your choice of speakers is, therefore, a consideration of even more importance than in ordinary years.

W. H. COWLEY